

Improving

COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY

Teaching



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Sixth Year

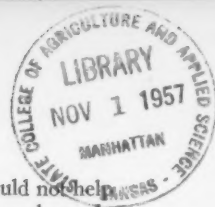
☛ The steadily expanding company of subscribers, in every state and beyond the national borders, and the stream of contributions, from New Hampshire to California, from Florida to Washington, from Maryland to Hawaii, give the journal assurance of its significance and its permanence. The *Classical Bulletin* was the first to declare, "Its future seems assured." And as announced in the preceding issue, the willingness of twelve nationally known professors to serve as members of the National Editorial Advisory Board is not only encouraging to the journal but is evidence that there is nationwide interest in improving college and university teaching.

The plans for the 1958 volume have been partly shaped, but it is expected that improvements, suggested by readers and the Editorial Board, will be incorporated. The sixth year of the journal will begin with the Winter 1958 issue which will be mailed in early December. Contributors will be: Carl R. Rogers of the University of Chicago, "Personal Thoughts on Teaching and Learning"; Paul Douglass of Rollins College, "Irving Babbitt—America's Greatest Teacher"; John Manning of Michigan State University, "Shakespearean Tragedy in General Education"; Clifford J. Kolson of Miami University, "Four Remedies in Crisis"; Winslow R. Hatch of Boston University, "The Lecture"; Charles I. Glicksberg of Brooklyn College, "An Evaluation of the Lecture System"; Ordway Tead, article or book review, perhaps both. Editorial: "The Higher Teaching."

Thanks

☛ In the first issue of this journal, February 1953, thanks were expressed "to those university professors who have shared with the rest of us their thinking, experience, and concepts of college and university teaching." Thanks are again expressed to those original contributors and to all later contributors, one hundred of them, who have made the pages of the journal a "goodly fellowship" of college and university teachers. Appreciation is expressed on behalf of the readers, the editor, and the Graduate School, which sponsors the journal as a contribution to the advancement of higher education.

Divine Discontent



IN the days when our summer is over," wrote Unanuno, "what a flow of calm felicity, of resignation to destiny, must come from remembering hopes which have never been realized and which, because they have never been realized, preserve their pristine purity." The statement out of context may seem to provide a poor kind of comfort. Are unrealized hopes really choice possessions of memory? One might prefer to have his hopes realized at the risk of disillusionment, to find his lady imperfect rather than cherish for life an unmarred memory. Perhaps unrealized hopes have a deeper significance for "calm felicity" than is readily apparent.

We think and speak a great deal about peace, yearn for peace among the nations, seek it in our personal lives. And the quest is not new. Soothsayers, drugs, and philosophies and religions both specious and precious have ministered to persons beset by fears, frustrations, injustices, and sorrows. Foolish people still pursue many a delusion seeking reassurance or escape. Wise people try to live, not without troubles but without fretting.

Serenity is regarded as a sign of noble character. We revere heroic calm in tragedy or danger: Socrates drinking the hemlock, Christ facing Pilate, Edith Cavell before the firing squad. We know that humble people, unknown to fame, may exhibit all degrees of equanimity and magnanimity. The serene person sees the universe and life in such fullness that he can keep cool amid vicissitudes. We might define a mature person as one who is alert to all demands and opportunities and equal to all crises.

Paradoxically, however, serenity can be a bad thing. Our communities and campuses are full of people who have high morale, who think that "all's right with the world"—at least with the world that matters, *their* world—because they have limited imaginations and narrow sympathies. Many things that disturb sensitive people do not disturb them because they are oblivious to them.

We see students satisfied merely to pass their courses, students capable of earning A's who make only B's and C's, students who get from college a poor education and never know the difference. Their hopes, being mundane, are likely to be realized. Their content, such as it is, is secure.

Are teachers complacent about their teaching because they have low ideals of teaching? Are

teachers mediocre, not because they could not help it, but because they do not know or perhaps do not care that their teaching is mediocre? It has been found that faculty people in lower ranks often are better teachers than associate or full professors. Can complacency be the cause? May it be that contentedness, which is supposed to make for productivity in cows, is deadly at the human level?

Our campuses abound in complacency. The time it takes for a new idea to become effective in colleges and universities is notorious. Interest and energies that might be used for significant advance are used up in trivial discussions and tinkering. A faculty member with ideas and enthusiasm is called unrealistic. The high potential of faculty and students is beaten down. Just as we know that students too commonly operate below their capacity, we must admit that faculty members do the same. Complacency is the curse of the campus.

If we admit this fact, perhaps we could do something about it. Faculty and students on a college or university campus constitute a high human level. They have superior capacity. They have mentality to penetrate beyond the immediate and the obvious. They are capable of seeing relationships and of discerning implications. They cannot, without suppressing their high talents, be complacent with what is when they can see what might be.

Divine discontent is a crowning human quality. It is the vision without which the people perish. Imagination and intelligence reach beyond—always beyond—what is attained. The "margin fades forever and forever" as they move. To a person—to a teacher—of imagination and intelligence, "life never can be thoroughly joyous." He is aware of what can yet be attained. He has hopes. If he recalls his early and unrealized hopes, it will be to rejoice, not in their pristine purity but in the fact that he had the hopes, that his earlier life was at a level above complacency, a level worthy of a human being whose gifts include a spark of the divine.

One whose powers have been cultivated to an extent implied by a college degree should be happier because of his education, but he never can properly be content. Unanuno also said: "Peace of mind, reconciliation between reason and faith—this, thanks to the providence of God, is no longer possible."

Is Teaching a Profession?

Known nationally for his provocative book "Two Sides to a Teacher's Desk" and as microbiologist at the University of California Medical Center, the author of the following article presents his sixth contribution to this journal. The topic is one to which he has given thought for some years but yet "found decidedly tough" to put into readable form.

By MAX S. MARSHALL

MODERN PHILOSOPHY seems to call for a quick sure answer to the question, Is teaching a profession? "Yes." This would then be followed by platitudes and claims which support the answer. The question itself may well be met by a high degree of rationalization and a sort of righteous indignation that anyone should ask it. I submit that (a) this gets us nowhere, (b) the answer cannot be unqualified, and (c) a search for truth, whether for or against our wishes, is mandatory, since truth and teaching must be allies if teaching is to be even respectable, let alone professional.

Herein I propose to analyze the meaning of "profession" in some reasoned degree, after which an effort will be made to weigh our occupation, teaching, in terms of this meaning. Teaching, like Caesar, is vulnerable, and I do not come to praise. Teaching, like Caesar, has a claim to greatness, but the teacher who claims to be a professional man because no one has a right to question him demonstrates by this act that he is not a professional person. Should I say, on the other hand, that teaching is not a profession, surely my civil defense better be put on guard against charges that may be anything but civil.

WHAT IS A PROFESSION?

We must consider the meaning of "profession" in both proper and semantic senses. These days the language itself is abused by the distortion of words in a new and infantile form of slang. *We finalize our thinking by implementing the structuring of whole new atmospheres at all levels*, as it were, as though corruption of language or ignorance of it to begin with was creative. Unfortunately no Congress of English exists to give a semblance of stability to that fluid substance we call language. No laws demand imprisonment for those who twist it into confessions of ineptitude in language and the false glorification of old and

simple concepts. Above all, let us not confuse professionalism by or with the indirectness of modern gobbledygook.

In athletics professionalism is an antithesis of amateurism. The principle which differentiates the two has been widely discussed. The professional makes a primary living from his sport. He professes competence in his field and he expects to be literally competent, competing to show himself worthy of faith put in him. His profession absorbs him so that interests in the off season are secondary. The amateur, on the other hand, is supposed to have a clear and primary objective in life other than his sport. Either he has another means of livelihood or he has his eyes on such. When the time given to his sport precludes other efforts to support himself, he may get aid for his education but may not receive pay for his participation in sports. Sport is a fervent hobby to an amateur in which, if he cannot afford it, he does not participate. Unquestionably aid in cash or perquisites may add up to aid in a violation of amateurism when cash is the motive; at other times unquestionably aid in living while talented persons pursue sports for the love of them falls well within the code for amateurs. We are not here concerned with the difficult moral issue.

Definition is the issue. Students are supposed to be in quest of an education, and consequently they are condemned when education becomes a secondary consideration. This seems to give prestige to amateurism. In a well-organized sport like baseball, however, the professional is the acknowledged expert. Unlike the amateur, he is acknowledged as competent only when he is fully dedicated to his task. He may be paid as much as \$80,000 and more a season rewarding the special talents as we see this done in some of the arts. Dedication to the game when it is on is demanded both for amateur and professional, but the long hours of training, the total effort, is often determined by cash. Both amateurs and professionals are respectable sportsmen, and there is prestige for each. In sports, professionalism acquires a meaning which is in some senses better and in some senses inferior to amateurism.

Professionalism is also often set apart when it is contrasted with trade. Neither the tradesman nor the professional is "in business for his health." Neither is censured because he receives

pay. The impossible problem of how much each receives is not pertinent here. Each consecrates his life to services which require major parts of his time and energy. Society expects to pay each, albeit sometimes unhappily. The trade or profession is a primary issue in his life.

The distinction between professionalism and trade lies elsewhere. Webster says trade concerns "mechanical employments or handicrafts." He exempts agriculture, oddly enough, surely not because agriculture is a profession rather than a trade, nor because agriculture lacks mechanical employment and handicrafts. The agriculturist is also an expert in trade in the sense of barter. Agriculture does concern itself with growth, a matter of nature, rather than with the product of the artisan. A person considered to be expert in handicraft, however, is called a craftsman, not a tradesman. The expert may gain such a reputation, as did Cellini, that he is called an artist rather than a craftsman. The artist is perhaps in contrast with the professional somewhat as the amateur and somewhat as the tradesman. Professionalism is difficult to define by what is done and by its place in society, yet a degree of consistency seems to emerge.

Although some approval or disapproval is often implied by the labels, trade, handicraft, or profession, or by professional and amateur, there is no intrinsic evaluation in the terms. Professional men and their sycophants sometimes look down their noses at tradesmen, but the comments made by the electrician over the clumsiness of a lawyer or the ignorance of a physician in matters electrical are of the same order of justification. The lawyer in court, the physician at the bedside, and the electrician tackling a stubborn instrument or appliance are all experts, dedicated to the task at hand. All are concerned eventually over a matter of pay but, when solidly at work, this is not foremost. When we distill the essence, trade seems to concern itself with pure but multiple creation, such as manufacture of automobiles or creation of steel from rock. The artist is called in for single creativeness. In this distilled sense the profession concerns itself with the guidance of man, the creation of nothing. Mechanical skill and effort are common in medicine, but whereas steel is created from rock the physician, however skilled in surgery, bends nature to his will but never farther than his repairs are in accord with the original body.

Traditionally the professions were theology,

medicine, and law. The inclusion of theology was at times debated, but these occupations were generally acknowledged to stand apart as professions. Persons in other occupations were amateurs, tradesmen, artists, engineers, and so on. Considerations of amateurs and professionals usually exclude all who are not engaged in sports. To speak of professional men and tradesmen covers a larger fraction of the population but it is still a fraction. Were the original professional men, the theologians, medical men, and lawyers professionals by their own acclaim, by stipulation or definition, by the nature of their work, by their acceptance of pay, by the degree of training, by the extent of their responsibility, or for some other reason? An inkling of a new angle, the direct influence of human relationships, may be a key. All three of the original professions exert considerable direct influence on our lives.

We are in deep water, however, for whatever we accept requires a realignment both of our ideas and of the professions themselves. The knowledge and wisdom of a banker can be had only through experience and training. The electrician accounts for much of our daily existence and takes responsibility for fatal errors as surely as does the physician. Dedication to cash or medals appears consistently in sports, trades, and professions, but these appear elsewhere and everywhere. Service to our fellow man in terms which leave one man important, another not, is not acceptable to our democratic philosophy. Send all physicians out of town and we should have some troubles (we might also escape a few!), and the same can be said of lawyers, but in either instance we should be less aware of trouble than we would if all filling stations suddenly closed.

CLAIM OR ACCLAIM

We are really left with a single criterion: that a profession is such by its own proclamation. That this is pragmatically true in modern society cannot well be denied. Several generations ago engineering and dentistry proclaimed themselves as professions, with no appreciable argument. They were saying, by this act, that theologians, physicians, and lawyers had a prestige which they would like to claim also. Eventually the undertaker called himself a mortician, cosmetologists appeared, chiropodists emulated the curricula of older professions and claimed a professional status. Public health, while breaking away from legitimate medicine, was careful to try to preserve the professional label. A reference to the banking pro-

fession or the teaching profession causes no lifted eyebrows.

If a profession is not such by field, training, expertness, responsibility, or cash, perhaps some curb on or justification for profession by claim should be made, as opposed to profession by acclaim. Socially we cannot prohibit a cosmetologist from speaking of herself as a professional person; and many of us would not be disturbed by this. To include a degree of snobbishness in the story, a sort of claim to aristocracy, may provide the key to the solution of the dilemma. The cosmetologist does not claim to be a tradesman, though trade is certainly respectable. She feels that she has increased her social stature by calling herself a professional person; and maybe she is right.

We are now in a position to weigh the status of teaching, despite a lack of simple rules for guidance. Our postulates preclude the designation of teaching as a profession by intrinsic right, simply because it is teaching. Because we take pay checks for it or because it is not a trade, it is not therefore a profession. In terms of self-esteem or social prestige, opinion is surely divided among teachers, artisans, or regular citizens. Gilbert Highet intended praise and stimulation when he wrote *The Art of Teaching*. We look askance at a declaration that teaching is a profession through the bias of self-claims. Conceit is not proof; it is rather a confession of bias which lowers prestige, though pride in our work we accept more readily.

An amateur may outshine a professional in terms of social prestige, but the cosmetologist teaches us that the label, "a profession," is a desirable thing. Perhaps, then, the use of fair means of attainment is legitimate, in spite of the jolting title of a recent speech by a member of what nearly everyone would call a professional group, "Teaching Students to Acquire Professional Attitudes." This is as shocking as Dale Carnegie's rules for manipulation of fellow men to get what you want. However, students are expected to seek to enter medicine or the law. Those who are regarded as good candidates may become physicians or lawyers. Now and then by amiable manipulation of those in authority a student will wangle his way into a professional school and get a degree and a license, but clearly this is unprofessional as well as unfortunate. To "teach" a student a professional attitude, to wear the pose and dignity of a profession as though he belonged to it, is a jolting concept and would call for licenses for some of our best confidence men. The thought of teaching

a student to be a professional as such is little more than a reflection of the unfortunate systematists who conceive of education as a chain of courses presented by authorities. The narrowness of this view is almost claustrophobic.

CONCEIT VS PRIDE

A definition of "profession" must concede that such can exist. The right of a man to claim professionalism, his competence, and his salary check, although not criteria, are still elusive elements in professionalism. Conceited claims, however convincing, are not part of a professional man, but the professional cloak may be worn with acceptable pride. In a recent movie an immigrant mother defines a gentleman, honorably occupied: "A gentleman is proud of what he does." Despite the tendency to say that a man who has spent n years in training or x dollars, studied with A, or worked tremendously hard under "untold sacrifice" is converted to a professional man, and a gentleman, the fact is that those who have done these things can become professional persons only if other qualities obtain.

Medicine and law, prototypes of professions, are noteworthy in terms of the manner whereby they affect the lives of their fellow man. The way that this is done seems to be an integral though subtle part of a profession. Teaching may meet this criterion, but also it may not. Many influences, certainly including inheritance, environment, parents, other students, and neighbors, enter the education of a graduate. Teachers are often ready to claim too large a share of glory in the results, and as often they are glorified by others or are held responsible for results which can in no way be part of their work. The fact remains that a teacher's aid to students is a contribution in terms of aid similar in manner and degree to that of physician and lawyer. Teachers provide the basis for carrying on in a way that otherwise would be impossible. The client, patient, and student have much in common.

Much drama is written about the rigors of training required for teachers, most of it no more rigorous than is needed for other fields of endeavor in a community. Much of the training that is required nowadays is not essential. The training is rarely as rigorous as that needed for medicine or law. To teach in college or university some graduate work is usually required, but a teacher is rarely worth much without experience. Competence is expected of both professional persons and teachers, but mighty battles have been waged

over the meaning of competence in teaching. Educationists usually emphasize teaching and professional men emphasize the field taught. Since teaching is concerned with teaching a subject to a student, competence must consider all three elements. Competence does not make us professional, but perhaps we can claim sufficient competence to retain eligibility for professionalism.

The professional attitude toward cold cash brings out another link between teaching and traditional professions. Cold cash itself does not determine professionalism so much as does the attitude toward it. A professional ballplayer cannot hit home runs in proportion to his pay check. If, though able to hit 40, he decided he was worth twice his salary so he hit only 20, he would be caught and labeled a nonprofessional in more ways than one. The talented young fellow who hit 30 home runs on a beginner's salary in a minor league, because he loved the game, and took pride in his efforts, would then get the salary left by his losing predecessor. Gold is not the measure, but an attitude toward it is. The dedication of teachers to their work with such talents as they possess is common enough to keep many of them in the running for professionalism, but again this does not make them professionals. Accomplishment and pride in workmanship, in contrast to production carefully geared to no more than is paid for is still common, in many occupations, though the trend is not encouraging.

With increasing clarity we see that, although we cannot rest on our laurels and claim that we are professional persons because we are teachers, we may attain that status. In an approbatory sense, in modern times the professional outlook is suspect even in theology, medicine, and law. Although a majority of those who profess in these fields of knowledge meet the standards of professionalism, not all of them do so. When we question the degree to which a professional standard is met we are questioning, instinctively, not income, training, or competence, but the attitude.

In modern times professionalism cannot be limited to the Big Three. We cannot even properly rule out fields of endeavor which we think seem to lack dignity or prestige. In nearly every walk of life some men and women are found whose devotion to their work, whose intellectual attitudes toward it, and whose services are outstanding. Whether or not they are called professional persons, we often think of them in a similar manner. An elderly lady who never finished high school,

well read and a shining light in her community, by "profession" a "housewife," was a worthy teacher. She met the qualifications for a professional person, not by what she professed to be, for she was modest, but by what she was and by what she contributed. Not degrees, social position, or occupation determine the answer. It is determined by the person. Those of a given occupation may organize, with artificial barriers which pretend to admit only the "worthy" but which restrict freedom to the point of letting no one work without the blessing of their committee; but they will never by this move alone establish a profession. With care they may ensure an increased percentage of professional persons, but they are likely to do no more than put a plaque, "PROFESSION," on their door. "Art certainly cannot advance under compulsion to traditional forms."

TEACHING HAS ALL THE ELEMENTS

Teaching, then, is not of itself a profession, but it has all the elements thereof. In a modern sense it is no more of itself a profession than theology, medicine, and law, or perhaps engineering, architecture, or dentistry. Teachers may be professional persons, however, which is a different matter. Perhaps most teachers are such, but the louder the claim the less qualified they are as professional persons. In a dignified field of endeavor, often accepted as a "profession," the professional caliber is determined by attitude. In an admirable speech President Gould of Antioch spoke* of the dimensions of a college as the intellectual, the adventurous, and the spiritual. Though these are high ideals he gives them substantial meaning.

By intrinsic nature and by the nature of his training a teacher may be dedicated to the task before him, to his subject, and to his students, in balanced measure. His sense of adventure may lead him back to the history of his subject, currently into the history of his students, and forward to the developments of both subject and students. His spirit may put a reasoned faith in his fellow man and in the honest acquisition of knowledge. By instinct rather than by rule he may grow to have a charity of outlook backed by a solid code of reasoned and unwritten ethics. If written, they might start with: "I. To be worthy is sufficient." Such a teacher will not think of himself as a professional, but he may be recognized by society most often under that label so long as he is worthy and so long as he holds teaching to be

* "The Dimensions of a College," *School and Society*, 85:67, March 2, 1957.

a worthy calling. Practically, a teacher is in a good spot to become a professional person. The elements and potentials are there. Whether or not he becomes one depends on what he is, what he thinks, and what he does, with judgment to be that of society.

This conclusion might reach one further step. Teachers who can justifiably be called members of a teaching profession are less concerned with

their own status than with the qualifying of the right kind of students to become professional men and women, credits to society because of *their* attitudes toward their work and toward their fellow man. For teachers there is far more satisfaction to be gained in observing the development of worthy professional persons than in concern over the rights to be classed as a member of a profession.

Campus and Monument

"The campus had become one of the most beautiful to be found anywhere, dotted with bursting redbuds like small, pink, low-lying clouds. Dripping wistaria, white and purple, loosed its fragrance on the clear, spring air. When such days come to Tuskegee, of almost unearthly charm, one person will greet another with, 'Lovely weather we're having.' And the response is 'Yes, a regular Booker Washington day.'

"The presence of their principal still pervades the school. If something occurs which should not have occurred, the old people say that Booker Washington must be sleeping. And if a door bangs when no man is near it, then Washington has just passed through, keeping an eye on things as he used to do. His gravestone is a rough-hewn boulder of granite, but his monument is one of the noblest ever erected by man, Tuskegee Institute itself."

—RACKMAN HOLT, George Washington Carver; An American Biography. Copyright 1943 by Doubleday & Co., Inc. Reprinted by permission of the publishers.

Inquiry Into Inquiry¹

That the secret of Socrates' skill and fame as teacher is available in college and university classrooms today was set forth in the preceding issue by the Dean of the College of General Education, Boston University. In the present article, and in articles to follow, the author continues the theme in detail. Here he describes student learning as active inquiry, akin to the professor's own inquiry. In later issues he will discuss: Lecture, Laboratory, Dialogue, Examination. Into each of these "Inquiry" infuses vitality.

By WINSLOW R. HATCH

TEACHING IS A FORM OF INQUIRY. Now what do we mean by inquiry? The answer is fairly simple. We, the teachers and administrators of institutions of higher education, live in some degree "the life of reason" and we show some "capacity for reflection."² We reason when we write professional papers; we reflect when we do research. In a word, we *inquire*. All we are suggesting is that inquiry should play a larger role in our teaching, that students should also inquire.³

It is a cliché (but a useful one) to suggest that the West has been engaged in a Great Conversation for two thousand years. It would seem as though we must involve our students in this Conversation; that we ought to try to talk with our students as we talk among ourselves. To the extent that we limit their opportunity for inquiry, their opportunity for this kind of conversation, it might even be said that we deny them the "enrichment" and the "development" which they have every reason to expect from the university.

The contention here, of course, is that it is possible for a freshman to think (for at least a limited time) as well as a faculty member, or nearly as well. It is a rare conference, laboratory, or examination in which a student does not make an association that had escaped the instructor or does not discover ambiguities in the professor's presentation or does not identify information the

need of which the instructor had missed. The student is likely to do so, of course, only with the zealous encouragement of the faculty member. And not a lone faculty member necessarily, but a group of teachers convinced that freshmen *can* think, *can* inquire. It is the teacher's job, obviously, to see that the student may make those inquiries that enrich his life and involve deeply his capacity for reflection.

The freshman is not going to make great discoveries. He should not be expected to. The discovery which he can make is a wonderful enough one in itself: the discovery that he can think.

In serious inquiry, students do not investigate just any problem, issue, or hypothesis. There are problems and issues, which are of supreme importance, and they are the ones to which the scholarly community—which includes the students—should address itself.⁴

This approach does stretch the scholarship of the teacher as well as his ingenuity. He helps the student find his way through difficult material; but he refrains from telling him what to think. He never tells the student anything he can deduce. A question to be directed to all teachers is whether those of us who feel excitement in pursuing an idea should begrudge the student that kind of excitement. There is some element of self-interest here. No subject looks very attractive if the excitement of inquiry is distilled out of it. We need inquiry on both sides of the lectern. Teachers of little faith or scholarship are not likely to encourage their students to inquire. Those who wonder whether a bonafide program in higher education is not "too intellectual" or who question whether our students "will do this" would seem to have lost faith in themselves, in higher education, or in their students. In proper and competent hands the most "intellectual" material can be presented so that it is intelligible to students considerably less than gifted. The idea that something less than higher education is good enough is apparently a nasty consequence of the compromises with higher education made by colleges and universities. When we discount the student, when we "talk down" to him, we commit the cardinal sin of the teacher.

¹ Based on Founders' Day Address before the Alpha Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa, December 6, 1956, University of Vermont, Burlington, Vermont. The title was not suggested by John Dewey's *Logic, the Theory of Inquiry*, nor was the substance of the address influenced by Dewey's writing. It is the result of experience in the classroom. It is, however, a source of much satisfaction to find in Dewey's work support for the thesis advanced here.

² Clarence Faust, "Universities and the Life of Reason," Charter Day Address, October 19, 1954, University of Oregon.

³ See "The Socratic Method in Modern Dress," *Improving College and University Teaching*, Summer 1957, page 60.

⁴ For a discussion of some such issues, see G. Norman Eddy and William Verhage, "The Social Sciences in a General Education Program at Boston University," in *Social Sciences in General Education*, Earl J. McGrath, ed. (Dubuque, Iowa; William C. Brown Company, 1948), pp. 245-266.



If teaching is inquiry, then that lively and sustained debate as to whether or not research is essential to good teaching is muted. If teaching is inquiry, and research usually is, the only question still before us is whether our research is of a sort to support our teaching.

A basic assumption is that *every* student who can profit from a higher education can profit from inquiry. Our estimate after twelve years of experimentation with inquiry in a biology course at the State College of Washington was that 90% of the students in our course, a course of some rigor, derived real benefit from it. If failure is the failure of the student to work up to his potential, few students fail. The better students will, to be sure, dig out more facts for their own use than the poorer ones. And they may examine more ideas than poorer students. But the poorer student can think; and if he can think he can inquire; and since what he learns in inquiry is learned, he has learned more than if he were told. One real advantage in using the same method with poor as well as good students is that in the world into which the good ones graduate, they will have to cope with dull or uneducated citizens: they should be prepared for this fact. Reciprocally, a dull or less educated citizen must recognize that there are persons of greater ability or more education than he, persons who deserve his respect.

Inquiry is a part of most teaching, but in the institutionalization of higher education, in the convention of the textbook, the lecture, or the laboratory, the student's opportunity to inquire is restricted. When he is given the facts he might discover for himself; when he has whole theories, the "accepted" view, or the instructor's philosophy thrust upon him; and when he has little opportunity to experiment, even in the laboratory—when this is done, student inquiry is limited. Since all we really learn is self-learned, any restrictions placed upon our inquiry into a subject limit what we can learn about that subject.

The substitution of inquiry for the lecture-textbook-laboratory convention does not mean that the lecture, the textbook, and the laboratory have to be abandoned and that inquiry as a teaching method has to wait upon a new order. It is possible to provide more opportunities for student inquiry in any course. It would, accordingly, seem that every teacher should satisfy himself as to whether the advantages of inquiry outweigh the disadvantages it may have. What are its presumed disadvantages? We shall present eight dis-

advantages, together with our experience which has shown that the disadvantages do not necessarily follow.

First, it may be feared that in student inquiry the instructor is limited in the amount of factual information he can impart. A comparison of the amount of factual information required and learned in the same course when it was offered as a conventional textbook-lecture-laboratory course and later when the method of inquiry was used, clearly indicates that when student inquiry was made the method of instruction more factual information was required and learned. This gain is apparent in a comparison of syllabi, examinations, and the grades made by students on these examinations.⁵

Second, it may be feared that the "integrity" of a discipline is likely to be violated; that the inquiries set in motion may not properly "cover" or represent the subject concerned. Our experience is that this is not true, and presumably would not be true of courses such as ours concerned with "fundamentals." Inquiry, which goes to the "roots of problems," requires a knowledge of fundamental facts and fundamental theories.⁶ The reservation that the facts presented in elementary courses are selected in large part by the sequence that follows, and that inquiry will not provide a suitable foundation, is not borne out by our experience. Though the experimental biology course to which repeated reference is made was not designed to meet the needs of majors, it was approved as a satisfactory first course in the botany and zoology sequences.

Third, it may be supposed that the inquiry procedure is not well designed for large classes, for that mass education which characterizes higher education today. Our experience has been quite the contrary. The course in which inquiry was exploited most intensively had an enrollment of 300 to 400 students. (This class was sectioned to provide small, 15-20 man, conferences, but otherwise it met in large lecture sections and could have met in large laboratory sections had large laboratories been available.)

Fourth, it may appear that this method is very demanding of staff time. Our experience is that, where some instruction is provided in conferences, fewer contact hours are required than in the more conventional type of course. Since the student

⁵ For a discussion of the uses of fundamental facts and fundamental theories, see Wesley N. Tiffney, "The Science Program in Boston University General College," in *Science in General Education*, Earl J. McGrath, ed. (Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Company, 1948), pp. 170-184.

does more reading, fewer lectures are necessary. One good discussion per week, provided the students do the reading and reflection required, seems to advance inquiry better than several less competently handled ones. We concentrated on one good conference a week. Occasionally we held conferences of between thirty-five to forty-five students and had as many as fifteen to twenty auditors as well. So far as we could determine, these conferences were at least as successful as conferences with fifteen or twenty students. Apparently the opportunity to talk in a larger section was infrequent enough so that the students were a little more incisive in their thinking and speaking. Also, the increased number of intelligent and well prepared students that one gets in a larger group seems to produce better discussion. While participation cannot be as general in a large section as in a smaller one, listening to a sparkling discussion certainly has its educational advantages. If used as we used it, the advantages of a large conference seemed to outweigh the disadvantages. Finally, when students and faculty audit discussion sections, both teacher and students seem to be challenged to the best effort of which they are capable.

If, in addition to fewer lectures and at least the occasional use of large discussion sections, one requires fewer examinations and returns the responsibility for attendance and preparation to the students, inquiry is less demanding of staff time.

Fifth, it may be objected that the inquiry procedure is "too intellectual for our kind of student." Our experience is that while inquiry makes definite intellectual demands, it need not be painful for either teacher or student. The intellectual excitement in inquiry has emotional overtones, and learning by this method is clearly "fun" for student and teacher. The satisfaction from their discovery that they can think encourages students to be the inquisitive, articulate, well-adjusted persons we propose to develop in institutions of higher education. Where attendance in discussion sections was made voluntary, the student satisfaction was such that students who could not be "policed" into laboratories in other courses audited three or four additional conferences a week. Furthermore, an inquiring student examines himself. Under the student inquiry plan, the time spent by students in more conventional courses analyzing their instructor is spent analyzing themselves because they are the important human factors in this educational process.

Sixth, it might be supposed that inquiry can only be successful with students of better than average ability. The success we achieved at the State College of Washington with this method of instruction with lower division students is evidence that one does not have to have a highly selected student body. If failure in a course and in a method is the failure of students to work up to their potential, inquiry fails few students.

Seventh, it might be supposed that students will not take kindly to such a method. In a course in which student inquiry is insisted upon, we found that students were seriously disturbed for the first few weeks, but if the teacher retained his poise and courage and persisted in the use of the method, students became as enthusiastic about inquiry as they were antagonistic.³

Eighth, it may be supposed that inquiry is good for upper-classmen and graduate students but not for lower division students. Our experience is that it is good for freshmen and sophomores.⁶ Because they have not been taught to expect other methods of instruction at the university, they are more disposed to accept inquiry as a natural and desirable way to learn. As a matter of fact, if the inherent inquisitiveness and the quick enthusiasm of the young student is allowed to lie dormant for another two to four years, it may never flower. Certainly the lower division student is a better upperclassman and graduate student for this experience.

Now let us examine under eight headings some of the specific implications in student inquiry.

1 IMPLICATIONS FOR A PARTICULAR COURSE

Student inquiry has implications in any course in respect to lecture, laboratory, conference, and examination.⁷

The lecture is the place where problems are posed and their significance explored. Here problems are analyzed and the facts relevant to them identified. The sources of these facts should be reviewed. The necessity of having enough facts can be demonstrated by showing how inadequate our conclusions are when we do not have enough facts. If the responsibility which should be assumed by students is assumed by them, no more than one lecture a week may be required.

Student laboratories should be research laboratories. Observation and experimentation by the in-

⁶ G. Norman Eddy, "A Social Science Program in General Education," *Harvard Educational Review*, XXIII (Spring 1953), pp. 99-109, presents a picture of integrative courses directed to freshmen and sophomores.

⁷ Fuller discussions of these topics will appear in later issues.

dividual student should be substituted for mass manipulations and observations in which students follow instructions, line by line, most obediently, but quite uncritically.⁸

In the conference the student is provided with an opportunity to test his tentative efforts at analysis or interpretation.⁸ Here he can discover whether his factual information is adequate. There would seem to be no need for more than two conferences a week, since it should quickly become apparent that no really important subject can ever be exhausted. Leaving the student with some unfinished business emphasizes the point that inquiry is primarily the student's business and must, in large part, be done on his own time.⁸

Given the above emphasis on student responsibility, the examination is simply the occasion where teacher and student both have an opportunity to take stock of their achievement. What is desired on such an examination is not raw facts set down as words or phrases (or check marks or labels), but well reasoned, well argued, and well developed ideas abundantly supported by fact—in a word: understanding.⁸ An examination can be used as a substitute for teaching, or it can be made a teaching device. If examinations were made out jointly by all of a student's instructors (and this is not an impossible task in a prescribed curriculum), the first advantage would be that the instructors would learn a great deal. They would learn how to pool their teaching so that the student's opportunity to learn was enhanced. The student would learn not only what he had been "taught" in each course, but much that was not "taught." He would of necessity have to prepare for such examinations by searching for implications that one course has for another; and so his potential learning in each subject would be increased. But most important, his attention would be focused upon larger issues.

2 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE CURRICULUM AS A WHOLE

In a curriculum designed to support or enhance inquiry, there should be courses of four types. These should include (a) courses which point out those factors which can blunt or completely side-track the inquiring mind. For instance, psychological forces such as emotion should be understood by the student. And he should recognize some of the traditional and ideological forces

which have shaped modern Western civilization. There should be (b) courses which point out the role of the body in relation to the mind. The shaping of the mind by the environment and by basic organic factors needs emphasis. An inquiring student should evaluate the role of environment in human affairs, and should appreciate the significance of the fact that men share the planet, not only with each other, but with other living things (which live in an uneasy peace with their physical environment). There should also (c) be courses (and it should be emphasized that these experiences should not be confined to one course) which stress the subtleties of communication. If students are to take part in the Great Conversation, they must be able to converse with the proper signs and symbols and in the proper language. To converse well they need to know a good deal about language and about logic. Finally (d) there should be courses which, above all, stress *ideas*. The students must not settle for simple familiarity with great cultures, great men, great books, and great art. They must know what the ideas and qualities are that make for greatness. In studying the Greeks, for example, the major purpose should be to try to determine why Greek civilization was great, why Plato was a great philosopher, why the Parthenon is a great work of art.⁹

Since the inquiring student needs to know these things, the curriculum should, it would seem, be prescribed for the first two years. By the time he has discovered what higher education really is, he will be ready and able to determine the direction his inquiry should take in what remains to him of his undergraduate years.

What the curriculum should do for the student is to provide him with the opportunity for shared experience in thinking. Today almost the only things many graduates of institutions of higher education can talk together about for more than five minutes are sports and entertainment. The reasons are obvious. These are the only experiences they share widely enough and know enough about. This unfortunate situation should be corrected by a new emphasis upon student inquiry into a shared body of knowledge in a college where students learn together about the important questions which have engrossed and should engross mankind.¹⁰ Today, this kind of inquiry or

⁹ Bill Read, "The Humanities Course," *College English* XIV (January, 1953), pp. 219-226, discusses a course at Boston University which deals with the Greeks from this standpoint.

¹⁰ As an example of an early formulation of a course where students learned together about "a shared body of knowledge" about important questions, see Donald Born, "An Experimental College Curriculum," *Bostonia*, XII (February, 1939), pp. 12, 13, 25, 26.

⁸ For a discussion of methodological problems in such a conference, see G. Norman Eddy, "The Section in a General Education Program," *Junior College Journal*, XXV (December, 1954), pp. 191-199.

conversation is possible only as the result of accident, or it is a possibility open only to the elite.

One final point in regard to the curriculum: in the lecture-conference-laboratory convention common today, one hour being assigned to the lecture and two or three to the other aspects of the course, inquiry is often interrupted just when it is beginning to make real headway. If more time were offered in blocks of two or three hours, not only would interruptions be less frequent, but learning might be made somewhat less artificial than it is.

3 IMPLICATIONS FOR INTEGRATION

Where related and complementary courses are offered, preferably in a prescribed curriculum, "transfer of learning" is exploited to the full. Ideas scarcely ever stop at the boundary of the subject matter in which the inquiry begins, as scholars have come more and more to realize. It is out of the kind of inquiry suggested that insights missed by most students and teachers today are likely to come. To the extent that valid relationships can be discovered between any one discipline and others, and perhaps of all—to this extent real integration is achieved. This is inquiry at its best, because no one knows with certainty what he is going to discover. Of course, students must be cautioned that an idea of great significance in one discipline may not be important in all the disciplines it touches.

One cannot overemphasize the need for integration—integration in a course and integration between courses. Until one has discovered the integrative principles in a subject, the great theories that undergird it, it is difficult to select proper subjects for inquiry. And unless the pattern of inquiry is broad enough to justify the view that life is being examined, the possibilities in inquiry are not fully exploited.

4 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE COCURRICULUM

If learning is inquiry, and the student were to become habituated to inquiry, he would surely extend it outside the purely academic setting. The student would begin to reappraise his role in "real-life" situations, or in their approximations as these are met in extracurricular (sometimes called cocurricular) activities. He might even learn how the highly educated man should lead.

5 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE STUDENT

In our present lecture-textbook-laboratory approach, the student often has a passive role. As John Dewey has said, the student learns from

what he does, all that he does, and only from what he does. If "what he does" is inquiry and he becomes accustomed to using his mind in an inquiring way, he will learn rapidly because he is permitted—in fact, required—to learn.

While inquiry has exciting implications for students, it has some sobering implications too: it requires real work. For the student it means that he has to put away childish things and catch up with the responsibilities of his approaching majority. Specifically, he has to dig out, in the fine textbooks and other references that are available today, more of his facts and not compel his teacher to waste his time and his fellow students' time detailing facts that he can get for himself, perhaps better than the teacher can give them to him. He will find that the library around which he is told universities are built is indeed central in inquiry. Inquiry means that the student must be his own policeman: all the time the instructor takes calling roll and recording absences is time taken from students. Frequent quizzes and examinations given "to haul the wretch in order" sometimes interrupt learning or misdirect it. But the student has to pay for learning. He must not look for a scapegoat if, at the end of a semester or a year, after he has invested much time—but not enough—and money, he finds he has forfeited both.

In a program where student inquiry is stressed, the student has little need of those undergraduate contests for queenships or "big man" ships, or for those dreary hours of unimaginative, unimportant drudgery, appropriately called "heeling," by which status is bought. This kind of status is not important in an "examined life."

If a faculty assumes that the student is capable of serious inquiry, is mature enough to think and have ideas, the student probably will not disappoint it. If it assumes that a roll does not need to be taken to get students to attend classes; if it assumes that the student will do the necessary outside reading at the expense of those other activities that might take up his time; and if it assumes that students do not need to be given stints to get them to work—that, in sum, the student wants a *higher education*, the student is likely to get one.

Inquiry does not require a superior student. It does require a good student, by which is meant any student capable of acquiring a higher education. It requires a well-motivated student, but this does not mean that the student has to come to col-

lege already motivated. This is one of the great advantages in inquiry. It exploits the inherent, if latent, inquisitiveness in all students and takes at face value Aristotle's estimate that man wants to know.

In inquiry, as in any teaching, some students learn more, some less; but all learn, and all learn more. For example, in an experimental biology course material was added on photosynthesis to reflect the research of Calvin and others, on intermediary metabolism, on growth, on adaptation and ecology. A survey of the plant and animal kingdoms was made without adding hours to the course. Nothing was dropped to make room for these additions. While a comparison of examinations is difficult, our records showed that the grades, made against a fixed total for the semester, climbed throughout the whole A-F range.

In inquiry the student is "given his head." He can, and in some cases will, move so far ahead of the majority of the students in a course that he is, in fact, "in a class by himself"; sometimes he is even in a different class. In introductory courses, his bent for inquiry may carry him into subject matter of advanced courses, and he may inquire into subject matter not strictly within the province of the course in which he is enrolled. If planned for, and if the pattern of his flights is studied and built up systematically by his instructors, he can, by presenting himself for credit by examination, enter a major sooner and with a better background than those who take their time and the usual route. He should also be able to complete his major and his undergraduate requirements more quickly and be ready sooner to enter a world that needs highly educated men as fast as we can provide them. He can begin to plan for graduate school which, after all, is a logical place for an inquiring man.

While students operate at different levels of abstraction, some seeing most of the implications, some seeing only the general direction taken by the argument, just a "feeling" for higher education is a good not to be lightly regarded. For the better student, intellectual horizons are indeed unlimited.

6 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE TEACHER

We are not talking theoretically when we extol inquiry. We have put it into practice. When one teaches in this way, important people beat a path to his door; not the least of whom are students, students who want to major, graduate students who want to inquire. This is intellectual adven-

ture. To embark upon such an adventure, one starts with the faculty one has. If one has but a few teachers disposed to give inquiry a trial, they are enough if their inquiry is given a fair trial. The first to profit from such a venture is often the teacher. In inquiry he finds himself reaching for more facts and reading his professional journals with a new interest. He also discovers a concern for ideas that have dropped out of sight, at least out of his sight. He discovers this need in class discussion because he finds that his students in their first inductive efforts begin where Man began; that, as their knowledge increases, they make better and better inductions, much as Man has done. Were the teacher to know more of the early ideas about the subject under consideration, his discussion section could be made a laboratory in the history of ideas.

Inquiry not only changes students, leaving a permanent mark upon them, but it changes a faculty and leaves just as permanent a reorientation. This, in turn, builds the kind of morale in students and faculty and between students and faculty that makes teaching the most rewarding of all professions. Every man's cross is his fear that his is an insignificant work. Inquiry, fully exploited, is a man-sized job for both student and teacher, is obviously important, and hence builds that self-respect which is essential to everyone.

8 IMPLICATIONS FOR ADMINISTRATION

Since men come before program and method, the scholarship of a faculty must be the first concern of the administration. Since the salaries it can pay affect the kind of faculty it can assemble, it would seem that an administration must take a long look at inquiry. While inquiry is more demanding of the teacher than the present-day lecture-textbook-laboratory convention, it is less exacting in terms of contact hours. The teacher, accordingly, is able to meet more students. For an administration which knows that teachers will soon be in short supply, this should be very good news.

The prescribed curriculum, which is a very desirable adjunct to inquiry, provides a way for an institution to correct, for at least two years (and at its source), that proliferation and that overlapping and duplication of courses which run up the costs of education and siphon off funds which might be used to increase faculty salaries. It might also be pointed out that to the extent students have a common background their inquiry and learning can be pressed with vigor and effective-

ness. The drag placed on student performance because of unevenness in background among students in the same class is often considerable. It is possible that students could move much faster, were they to have an adequate common background. The most unfortunate thing about the uneven preparation of students is that it penalizes the better-prepared student. Actually, however, under an elective system, almost all of our students are penalized because all have gaps in their training. In inquiry it is also possible to accelerate the progress of the capable and industrious student without introducing a caste system into higher education.

We complain, sometimes bitterly, that our students don't read, don't think, don't grow after graduation—that they don't act like highly educated men and women. But if we spoon feed them when they are students of ours, what do we expect? What in fact are our expectations of students on campus and when school is out? Do we expect them to read, to think for themselves, and to keep on growing by making vacation reading a part of a course? Or, do we encourage the fiction that learning only happens at our feet? Why not plan on such reading by students, assume it, and build upon it in the first meetings after vacation? The more matter of fact we can be about it the better. This learning will not cost the institution or the taxpayer a cent.

If extracurricular activities are made to advance rather than to compete with a student's academic work, more can be done for students at

less cost. Finally, it will be found that costs per student are appreciably less in such a program than in conventional undergraduate programs.

Inquiry can, of course, be made at any educational level. The inquiry made in colleges and universities, however, cannot be sustained through four full years or at a level appropriate to institutions of higher education if the student is so deficient in certain skills—notably English composition, mathematics, reading, and speech—that he has to take part of a semester or even a full semester to acquire them. To teach skills at a college or university that should have been learned in high school is prohibitively expensive. Institutions of higher education should stop providing subcollegiate instruction as soon as practicable. In the meantime they should make good preparation so advantageous that students will prepare themselves adequately, or insist on getting good preparation.

SUMMARY

Our thesis is simply that:

- ▶ The essence of higher education, the essential idea of it and the word that may be used to describe it, is inquiry, and in our teaching as in our research we should inquire more often and into more important things.
- ▶ There is no right way, no one good method of inquiry. Every teacher or every faculty has to determine what is for him or it the best way.
- ▶ Inquiry is something that any teacher can do anywhere, any time, to some degree.
- ▶ Inquiry is easier if student inquiry is at least the aspiration of the institution. Inquiry is something which cannot be legislated or introduced by fiat; it can be done with success only if a teacher wants to make a success of it.
- ▶ In inquiry a college or university has, at hand, ready-made, an instrument by which it can improve itself. It does not have to have a \$150,000,000 endowment or a packed legislature—only the will.

The College

"Such is the college. It is an institution where young men and young women study great subjects, under broad teachers, in a liberty which is not license and a leisure which is not idleness—with unselfish participation in a common life and intense devotion to minor groups within the larger body and special interests inside the general aim; conscious that they are critically watched by friendly eyes, too kind ever to take unfair advantage of their weaknesses and errors, yet too keen ever to be deceived."

—WILLIAM DEWITT HYDE, *The College Man and the College Woman*. Boston and New York: Houghton Mifflin Company. 1906. Page 329.



The Classroom Climate

It has been said that the development of a climate conducive to student growth is "probably the primary function of teaching." To this idea, out of unique opportunity for close though largely "vicarious" familiarity with college teaching, a professor of political science at Brooklyn College (A.B., A.M., Ph.D., Columbia) stresses that a proper classroom climate demands a sincere fostering of human dignity.

By ELLSWERTH MISSALL

MY CONTRIBUTION has the same limitations as those of any other professor's reflections on his own personal teaching experience when he can claim no formal education training or authoritative knowledge of the teaching process or its improvement. Substantively my teaching experience has been confined to some areas of Political Science and the Social Science course as it was offered at Brooklyn College several years ago. Methodologically, I have spent most of my teaching years in the relatively small lecture-discussion classroom. What I have to say about college teaching, therefore, probably could be said by many other faculty members. Generally, I suspect, they would forego comment on the ground that what they might say would be too elementary for consideration by teachers in the field of higher education. I think that some years back, I too, would have felt this way. For a decade, however, I have had the opportunity to observe vicariously a large number of college teachers by way of my service as a counselor. This experience has given me much support for the feeling that we must get back to some primer-level propositions.

My concern is with the "climate" of the classroom, the kind of total relation among the students and with the instructor that produces the intellectual experience that supposedly characterizes a college classroom. This "climate" must first contain an instructor who is driven by a strong emotional and intellectual conviction for the importance of the subject he is teaching. If other drives, like a self-conscious regard for the pleasure of his status, a need for authority, or a sense of superiority dominate as the satisfactions he gets from his job, then I doubt that the instructor is contributing to the required environment.

Secondly, I believe that for the "climate" nec-

essary to the learning process by collegians the instructor needs to be guided by the assumption that the college student is at an age when he is striving mightily to be "somebody"; that he is trying to be a self-contained, self-directed, and self-recognized being; that he is driving hard for autonomy, respect, and self-understanding. (I have not assumed, of course, that this process has started at the point of his entrance into college, but rather that as a college student he is now engaged in the process of seeing himself very much more clearly as a separate human in association with other humans than he did in elementary or high school.)

I think that the college student's developing role as an autonomous being is an increasingly distinct and powerful influence in his being and that he is vigorously grappling with the process of trying to know himself. In this struggle he is undoubtedly learning how easily his self-appraisal may be biased by what he believes people ought to think of him. He probably may also be learning that his estimate of how other people identify him is apt to be the product of his own mistaken understanding of their opinion of him, or perhaps he is beginning to see that he is not living his own life. It looks to me like a confusing process to become a man among men. A teacher ought to aid and abet, not frustrate, this process.

As a correlative, I assume that at this age, more than in an earlier period, he is becoming much better equipped to engage in this process of self-direction, self-expression, and self-delineation. I believe I must also recognize that this process will not continue much beyond his college career—and if it does, certainly not at the same rapid pace. As a teacher I am working with the student at a time of unusual development for him.

My assignment as a college teacher, therefore, seems to be to understand that I have before me a variety of instruments more numerous than those in a symphony orchestra and certainly more complex. Working individually and collectively with these instruments I must produce clarity, rhythm, harmony, and expression.

In the specific elaboration of the nature of the classroom pattern required for these "self-striving" students, my experience suggests that the instructor is strongly advised to offer the kind of respect and regard for the students and their intellectual activity that he expects them to show to

their instructor and finally to their fellow students. If the instructor has an attitude of condescension, a belief and a behavior pattern that reveal a low regard for their morality, and a point of view that suggests that the students will regard his course as difficult, uninteresting, or unimportant, then the instructor can expect such attitudes and behavior on the part of his students. May I say that, in the interest of some kind of scientific demonstration, I have never tried these beliefs or patterns of behavior on a class. I have behaved positively toward the group and have found only negligible variation from the proposition that the behavior I expect I get.

Another proposition, not unlike this one, is to guard against the interpretation of student behavior as being negative or destructive. What may appear as a student's purpose to embarrass, confuse, or belittle an instructor may actually be just that, but then again it may not. It may be the student's striving for "a place in the sun." In any case, what is gained by acting as if the student's purposes are destructive, negative, or antagonistic to intellectual processes? Perhaps a classroom Kentucky feud would make good theater, but it does not make for good education. Suppose it is granted that the instructor has been caught in an error of fact. If so, it will not be the last time. The sooner he gets used to admitting mistakes the better. But it is more likely that the student is eager, not to expose the instructor in error but to "pit" his *opinion* against that of another instructor, a textbook, or some other authority. In short, the issue is more apt to be an issue of *interpretation*.

After clarifying carefully for the class what the nature of the issue is, "the floor is open" and the instructor is ordinarily well advised to take the leadership in the itemization of the factors and the kind of methodology that he has employed to justify his interpretation. Certainly an indispensable device would be the involvement of the class in an appraisal of the analysis of what the instructor has offered. It is likely that other class members, as well as the antagonist, will readily enter the discussion to call attention to factors not mentioned and perhaps to raise questions about alternative methods of interpretation. As a result, what originally appeared to be the birth of a critical personal conflict can be turned into a useful classroom experience. I do not mean to say that "problem" students may not call for more elaborate "treatment"—personal interviews and perhaps

professional counseling—but I do say that classroom problems can be constructed when it is inappropriate to do so and more important, that such "problems" may be more frequently redirected into fruitful sources of classroom behavior.

A disposition to believe that the students are lazy, that they are unwilling to prepare assignments, that they lack knowledge, and that they are the poorest of poor scholars should make any class experience a negative contribution to the learning process. To single out from among these alleged common characteristics the unprepared student, it should be possible to deal with such a student in a manner that suggests that all is not lost because he is unprepared. (It may be that we read too much and do not think enough.) Through a Socratic technique it should be possible to get this student to bring to bear relevant materials of what he already knows about the course and thus to get him to see certain relationships that he might otherwise have overlooked. It is not uncommon ultimately to secure an adequate answer even to the question for which the student said he was unprepared. There have been occasions when the response has been very much more than adequate, when I have been impressed with the quality of the thinking and of the organization of material that have resulted. Under such circumstances the student has learned something about analysis and synthesis and gained a certain confidence in himself that might otherwise have been lost had he been passed over because of his alleged lack of preparation.

Of course, a concentration of a question and answer technique, punitively oriented, can also give such a student an experience that may positively relate him to regular preparation in the future, if for no other purpose than to forego the repetition of the experience of such a Socratic catharsis.

For the student who seems to lack knowledge, a sensitive scrutiny of facial expression accompanied by a rephrasing of the question which is in turn followed by further elaboration may begin to "bring on the dawn." If thoughtful development of associated material still fails, a provocative question ordinarily will get an inert student thinking and then he can be brought "back on the track," provided such a question is addressed to relevant earlier and better known material. If, for example, the answer being pursued involves some subdivisional aspect of political parties in the United States, one might raise the question,

"Why not abolish political parties?" The answer to this can then be pushed in the direction of the original objective.

The application of a frank, balanced, and positive relation of the instructor to both students and subject matter pays the greatest dividends in relation to the conduct of examinations. Evasiveness, delay, self-righteousness, or avoidance of issues by involved meaningless verbiage can do more to destroy effective personal involvement in the educational process than I think some of us are willing to recognize. The content of examinations and the grading methods should be open to free criticism by the students, to adequate defense on their merits by the instructor, and to correction by the instructor. A student's misinterpretation of questions is not necessarily evidence of either malicious behavior or stupidity. The instructor's

grading standards ought to be open to student appraisal. If class-wide criticism is a standard reaction, several kinds of professional help ought to be sought by the instructor. If examinations are given and then permanently kept from class consideration or unduly delayed in their return, or are not open to review, disregard for human dignity is being shown for a group who are quite sensitive about their recognition as human beings.

In essence, then, I assume that I am on firm psychological ground in the recognition of the dignity of the human personality as fostering the best kind of learning atmosphere. I assume also that, as a political scientist, I happen coincidentally to be fostering as well one of the basic assumptions of democratic philosophy. If I may fall back upon an even broader value of humankind, I am recognizing, at least, the brotherhood of man.

Staggering Price

"The ten thousand Americans who between 1850 and 1914 returned from Europe with German Ph.D.'s brought back with them something else besides preeminent skill as specialists. They brought intellectualism, and they saddled it upon American colleges. German universities, after the crushing defeat that Napoleon administered to their fatherland early in the century, threw overboard all interest in students as individuals. They sought to raise a race of intellectual supermen. Where the student lived, the condition of his health, his social life, his physical and spiritual growth—these were of no interest to the German academic authorities. They considered their job to be the training of superior minds. This is the Teutonic doctrine of intellectualism which eventually displaced the tradition of wholeness and completeness that Anglo-Saxon educators had cherished for centuries. Germany has made a huge contribution to the intellectual education of America, but for this help we paid a staggering price. We have fallen into the calamitous error of assuming that the intellect dominates life and that it is the only concern of education."

—W. H. COWLEY, "The Soul of America."
Think, September 1944. Page 6.

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A Curriculum in Books and Reading

Could a college or university do anything better for a student than to inspire him with a love for books and instill in him the habit of using them? Could not a curriculum in books and reading serve a useful purpose? A professor in the University of Illinois Library School (B.S., A.B., Northwest Missouri State; A.M.L.S., Michigan; Ph.D., Chicago) sketches the scope and values that such a curriculum may serve.

By THELMA EATON

IF WE ARE TO BELIEVE the pollsters, a good many young people of today are going to college without much idea of what they wish to study, and even less of an idea as to what they will do after graduation. They have been convinced by many articles in newspapers and periodicals that the college graduate earns more money than the person who has not attended college, but they have not understood that the college graduates who do secure satisfactory salaries probably had definite aims in mind when they planned their college programs. Since this aimlessness in college programs does exist there may be room for some courses which are designed primarily to give individuals a kind of inner satisfaction. Courses dealing with books and reading might do this. Indeed these courses might even be of use in earning a living if the library profession would take a realistic look at its needs and set up various categories of library workers. College graduates who have a knowledge of books and reading might then be able to find work in certain capacities in libraries.

A program of courses in "Books and Reading" is not a new idea. In the 1876 Special Report of the Bureau of Education,¹ Frederick B. Perkins and William Mathews discussed professorships of books and reading and pointed out how such a program could cover new ground not included in the usual literature courses. Such courses could be cultural courses that would be of interest to the people who liked to read, and especially to those who liked to find time for reading of current books in addition to the older books that were studied in literature courses.

Strangely enough this interesting proposal did not develop into an accepted part of college work.

Even today records show few, if any, professorships in books and readings. A few colleges do offer single courses which fall into the pattern recommended in 1876. Probably the failure to develop a program of such courses is the result of the growth to library schools. Within a decade of the appearance of the report, plans were under way for the establishment of a library school. It was assumed then, and has always been assumed since, that the person who turns toward librarianship as a profession is interested in reading and has read widely. But no courses have appeared in colleges which would make use of this interest in reading and serve as preparation for librarianship. Instead the trend has been to establish library science courses which were shorter forms of the courses of the professional school. With their emphasis on techniques of library work these courses have sometimes failed to appeal to those persons who are deeply interested in reading.

It is suggested, therefore, that some of these quasi-professional courses that are appearing in undergraduate colleges throughout the country might be replaced by courses that would be of cultural value and would interest a relatively large number of students. Some of these students would have no interest in librarianship, but they would enjoy courses in reading. These could be elective courses, or possibly, if enough hours were offered, they might even constitute a minor or a second minor for some students who lack specialized interests.

The six courses which will be described briefly as constituting the curriculum in "Books and Reading" could be increased in number. There is no particular virtue in any given number, but if a minor is to be developed there must be a minimum number of hours in the subject area. The first course which is proposed is a course dealing with the use of books and libraries. Some colleges offer such a course, but it is often offered to beginning freshmen and the course planned here would be designed for college juniors. By that time students are ready to make real use of the college library, and the course that is taught as they enter on specialized study could be broader in scope and of more use to the serious student. If the course is taught by the librarian, he must be careful to keep it pointed toward the needs of the individual. He must remember that he is not

¹ U.S. Dept. of Interior. Bureau of Education. *Public Libraries in the United States of America, History, Condition, and Management*. (Washington: Govt. Print. Office, 1876.)

teaching these students how to give reference service to patrons of a library but how they may use a library for their own satisfaction. A surprisingly large number of students arrive at graduate college without having acquired the habit of searching in books to find the facts that they need to proceed with their work. The course in how to use books and libraries would be planned to help students in their personal searching for interesting reading as well as in their search for course work.

As a beginning there might be three courses dealing with the reading of books, but this number could easily be extended. The first suggestion is for a course in current books. In this course able students could read extensively from among the current books, could learn about reviewing media, and could consider the problem of evaluating current writing. Cultured people usually read reviewing periodicals and the reviews in certain journals; this course would offer an opportunity to introduce students to this common practice. The course might also discuss publishers, how they advertise their wares, how the general public learns what books are available, and how to judge reviews and publishers' advertising. A second course could be a seminar in reading. Each student, in consultation with the teacher, would select an area he wished to investigate and center his reading upon this subject. This may sound, to librarians, very much like the old reading with a purpose work of the reader's adviser of the public library, but it is somewhat less formal because a student could change his reading plans at any time by consultation with the teacher. But a student who has heard of *The Frogs* might decide to give Greek drama a whirl and read many plays before he decided to go on to something else. From the class discussion of the reading of individuals all students should get a broader view of the great world of books. The third course in this group could be a course dealing with family reading. Since the majority of college girls of today expect to marry shortly after graduation, and to have children, they are interested in things which will improve family life. Reading in the home is sometimes mentioned as a necessary part of family life. The emphasis in this course would probably be on how to interest children in books and reading, but there might well be some time devoted to a discussion of how husbands and wives can share their enjoyment of books. For the consideration of developing children's interest in reading the class could begin with Annis Duff's delightful *Bequest of Wings*,

and proceed to similar discussions as an accompaniment to their reading of many children's books. Many colleges already have courses in children's literature and these should be retained. Such a course could be absorbed by the "Books and Reading" curriculum and with careful planning would not overlap the course on family reading since the point of view of the two courses is so completely different.

The courses mentioned thus far deal with two broad areas: first, the use of books, and second, the reading of books. A third area that would fit into this program would deal with the physical books themselves and the libraries which contain these books. A course in the history of books and libraries would be of absorbing interest to many students in the average college. These students are often interested in the making of books, and the place of libraries in the cultural history of the world would be a contribution to their background knowledge that would aid them in their other work.

The courses mentioned thus far are courses that should be of interest to many students. The only requirement for enjoying such courses would be a deep interest in books and reading. Different courses might appeal to students in various departments. The home economics student might like the course in family reading as a pleasurable elective. The history major might choose the history of books and libraries. The English student might like the course in current books to supplement his knowledge of English and American literature. For the student who becomes so interested in books that he might like to consider librarianship as a career, a single course in library routines could be offered. This would not present the techniques of library science, but it would be an introduction to the routines of the library, and would show how certain things operate. A college graduate without a professional library degree is not eligible for the professional library positions, but he can be used in certain clerical positions in libraries. If he has some knowledge of circulation, knows something about how to type catalog cards, how to use a catalog, how to shelve books and similar things, he might get work in a library for a time while he decides whether he wishes to continue in that field, and whether it is worthwhile for him to complete the work for the professional degree. The course in library routines would consider the way the library operates and the relation of one part to another. It would not attempt to

teach a student how to catalog books, but it would cover the business of ordering printed cards and would show students how to take the professional cataloger's hand written copy and produce a typed card ready for the catalog.

The person who has read this far in this article may well ask, "Who would teach such courses?" and add, "We can't afford to hire a person to teach such courses." Introducing a program of this sort does not necessarily require hiring new personnel. If the institution is in a position to set up a curriculum that uses teachers from a number of departments, and that is not unheard of in colleges and universities today, a faculty for this curriculum could be recruited from available teachers in other departments. A teacher from the history department might enjoy teaching the course in history of libraries; any teacher who reads extensively could teach the course in current books; some woman on the faculty who had guided her own children in reading might make an excellent teacher for the family reading course. The librarian would have to teach the course on routines, and he would probably be the person to teach the course in how to use the library. Indeed, it might be desirable for the librarian to earn his faculty status by teaching a course each semester.

What would a college gain from establishing such a program? If administrative problems in-

volved in establishing such a curriculum could be resolved, certain values would emerge. The greatest value would be that of sparking in some student a real love of books and reading. Other things learned in college may be forgotten, but if the student can carry away with him a deep interest in the written word much has been accomplished. An intangible value might be improved quality of work in various classes, resulting from a student's wider reading. Of secondary value but more easily measured is the value to the student who is going on for graduate work. If he learns to read effectively as a result of much reading and learns to use books more easily, he will have accomplished a great deal and will save himself much wasted time in graduate school. And finally such a program might help to direct into a satisfactory life work in libraries some of the young people who have no idea what they want to do in life. Some of them might be young women who would work for only a year or so after graduation. With this college training in books and reading they would be available for work as library aides, in positions which do not require the professional library degree. Other students might decide that a life working with books satisfied their requirements for a career and might elect to prepare for professional librarianship.

Pasture or Paddocks

"In any case, education is a means to an end; and from the end that it serves it derives chiefly its form. Whether, then, the college or university shall be regarded as a pasture over which the elect of mind may range and crop as they will, or a system of paddocks into which they shall be led and fed, cannot be decided without reference to the aims of the institution. But the question of economy enters also. One means may lead to the same end as another; yet the one may be wasteful of time and resources, and so lessen opportunities for other education; the other may be efficient, and so free educators and learners for further undertakings."

—THEODORE H. EATON, *College Teaching: Its Rationale*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 1932, Page 3.

Learning to Conduct Field Trips by Doing It

One function of Los Angeles State College of Applied Arts and Sciences is to prepare students to teach social studies in elementary schools. A professor of education (B.A., M.A., Ed.D., Texas) describes one method used in teaching how to conduct a field trip. The students are concerned with a teaching unit on Mexico, taught in the sixth grade of the Los Angeles schools.

By DOROTHY REED PECKHAM

METHODS OF TEACHING social studies in the elementary school are included in an eight unit course, commonly referred to as "the Block" at Los Angeles State College of Applied Arts and Sciences. Other curriculum areas included in the course are language arts, arithmetic, and science.

Writing social studies units and presenting lessons from them are two of the important learning experiences for students preparing to enter directed teaching the following semester. Enrollment in each section is approximately thirty students, making it possible for students to work in committees of from four to five persons. Committees are formed on the basis of individual preference of grade level and unit topic. Some class time is allotted to committee meetings, but much of the preparation of the unit must necessarily take place outside of regular class hours. The committee shares the responsibility for writing the social studies unit and decides on the type of lesson to be presented by each member. Students are encouraged to plan and present lessons appropriate to the initiation of the unit, to the development, and to the culmination. A variety of methods is used by students, including films and other audio-visual aids, multi-text research, rhythms and folk-dancing, songs, processing of materials, dramatic representation, and flannel board stories.

The principle that students in methods class learn best by doing is the basis for these demonstrations. Students have opportunities to prepare lesson plans, to arrange a stimulating room environment with bulletin boards and centers of interest, and actually to teach a lesson to the class. Later evaluation by both class and instructor prove helpful to the student in improving his teaching methods and techniques.

This article is limited to a consideration of only one method used by some committees in pre-

senting a unit. Some choose to arrange a study trip for the class, conducting it as much as possible as an elementary school excursion. It is understood that the trip may be used effectively for a variety of purposes: to provide a stimulating initiation to the unit, to answer children's questions in the unit development, or as a part of the culmination. Not all committees use a trip as part of their demonstrations, nor would it be feasible in terms of class time or of value to arrange more than one or two such trips in one semester. In order to illustrate the way such a study trip is conducted by a group of college students, let us follow the work of one group preparing a unit on Mexico, taught in the sixth grade in the Los Angeles schools.

Dick, Shirley, and Anita chose to work on this topic and to prepare lessons from the unit on Mexico. Early in their preplanning, it was agreed that Dick would be responsible for a lesson initiating the unit. He decided that a trip to Olvera Street, well known in Los Angeles for its authentic Mexican atmosphere, would be an interesting and valuable experience for the class. Dick requested time on the class schedule for the trip and two class meetings of two hours each were utilized to provide time for Dick to prepare the class for the trip and for the excursion itself.

Values of the elementary school study trip are well known. It provides first hand experiences, stimulates questions, leads to further research, clarifies ideas, provides for cooperative problem solving, and enriches pupil-teacher relationships. These purposes are just as valid for college students as for elementary school pupils. Dick and his committee had visited Olvera Street several times before taking the methods course, but they went again with different purposes in mind. Mexican markets and wares, candle making, glass blowing, and pottery making were seen with a new insight and awareness of how each could be used to enrich the study of Mexico. The students contacted a resource person, the caretaker of a house dating back to the rancho days and now a landmark in the street, and a tour of the house was arranged just as it is for many Los Angeles sixth graders in their study of Mexico. Some of the history of Olvera Street was learned by the committee.

On the day preceding the class visit to Olvera Street, Dick assumed the role of teacher and pre-

pared the class for the trip. It was understood that a sixth grade would devote more time to preparation, but this was all the class time that could be spared. "The teacher" collected permission slips signed by "parents," plans for transportation were made, and there was a review of such questions as: Why are we going? What do we expect to find out? To what shall we give special attention? What people do we expect to meet? What questions shall we ask them? Who shall keep a record? How long will it take? How shall we conduct ourselves? What standards shall we make for our safety? What signals shall we agree on for keeping together? A chart of safety measures and behavior standards, suggested by the class, was prepared by Dick.

Although the college students went in private cars, the trip through the street and the guided tour of the historic house were conducted in much the same manner as with a sixth grade class. The teacher kept purposes before the class, directed observation, stimulated comments and thinking, interpreted and pointed out relationships between classroom and present experiences, and felt responsible for the group.

Information secured on the trip, planned as a part of the unit initiation, was used effectively by other members of the committee as a motivation for much of the work presented in subsequent lessons. A note of appreciation to the guide was composed and mailed. Questions arising from the experience served as stimulation for the use of films,

multi-text research, and other activities.

Naturally, the use of such a trip by a college class can not be as extensive or take as much time as in an elementary classroom, but college students do gain experience in planning and organizing an excursion, in preparing the class, and in utilizing in later lessons some of the things seen and heard. They become more aware of the importance of using community resources and of the contributions of trips to social learnings. The prospective teacher is more keenly aware, after such a trip, of the values of study trips and their purposes in the social studies program. In evaluating the course, many students mentioned the trip as one of the most valuable learning experiences. The following comments of students are typical: "I saw things on this visit to Olvera Street that I had never seen before, although I had been there several times. I learned how useful such a trip can be to stimulate interest in the study of Mexico." "I realize better now how a class trip, such as the one we took, can be used to answer questions that have arisen in connection with the Mexico unit." "There were so many opportunities for varied lessons, such as discussion, films, panel pictures, and rhythms after the trip that I can see why a teacher and class must select from among them the things that are most valuable to do." "The Mexico committee members planned the trip well, knew what we were to see, arranged for the tour of the house, and gave attention to the time element."

The Universal Weakness

"The law giver, of all beings, most owes the law allegiance. He of all men should behave as though the law compelled him. But it is the universal weakness of mankind that what we are given to administer we presently imagine we own."

—H. G. WELLS, *The Outline of History*.
New York: The Macmillan Company.
1921. Page 650.

Developing Intellectual Perspective

Forty college and university faculty members in an all day seminar analyzed the problem of developing in students the intellectual perspective needed for a way of life such as our democracy demands. The author (B.A., M.A., Texas Christian; Ph.D., Texas) who reports the seminar thinking has been a member of the faculty at Queens College, Madison College, and is now assistant professor of education at the University of Arizona. He is coauthor of a new book now being printed.

By **WILSON F. WETZLER**

MANY SCHOOL EXECUTIVES, teachers, and discerning parents recognize that not all students in our today's schools and colleges are developing the kind of intellectual perspective that is needed for a way of life such as our democracy demands. For example, there are those students who have sat docilely at their desks and failed to develop a questioning attitude or an exciting curiosity. Others have emerged from even a mediocre academic environment and demonstrated by their deeds that somehow they have gained a particular intellectual perspective far above that which seemed possible from the type of learning experiences to which they had been exposed. A still greater number of boys and girls might develop an intellectual perspective according to their ability and become better citizens if able leadership were provided to them, particularly in the home and in the school. This discussion will be centered in two questions: What is meant by intellectual perspective? How can we develop it?

WHAT IS INTELLECTUAL PERSPECTIVE?

A simple definition of the term intellectual perspective as initiative, curiosity, integrity, and so on can be helpful and accurate, but a more dynamic approach can be made by describing the positive role of the individual. In developing intellectual perspective we need to foster at least four things: the varying abilities of students, broad understanding, appreciation of persons of various locales and backgrounds, and the establishment of a way of life after schooling.

Since all persons are products of their environment and possess potentialities set by heredity, it is clear that their varying abilities only point up one need to recognize accurately and early the

child's capacities and to develop more quickly an intellectual perspective. Specifically, teachers are concerned with the development of:

- ▶ The questioning, inquiring mind. There is no docile acceptance of a fact stated in a textbook simply because it is written there, but an active, curious questioning based on a habitual kind of intellectual inquisitiveness.
- ▶ The ability to make wise choices and decisions. Students feel their responsibilities, recognize them, and are willing to make decisions.
- ▶ The ability to plan and to organize their work. Frustration and confusion are minimized as students learn the techniques of planning and organization of their classroom work, and these skills become apparent as they solve a wide variety of problems.
- ▶ The power to think creatively. Rote learning or fact memorization is supplanted by thinking students; of course, the gifted persons will go farther and deeper, but each mind is capable of solving problems according to ability; learning is experienced as an active process of thinking.

The possession of an intellectual perspective by the students means first that certain skills have been acquired. These skills are translated into useful abilities which prepare the individual more adequately for our complex civilization with its competing philosophies and technical, complicated way of life.

An essential part of an intellectual perspective is the possession of certain understandings designed to help the student know and adjust to his world in better ways. Such an intellectual perspective includes:

- ▶ Some knowledge of society; the development of civilizations in terms of their heritage, their successes and failures, their institutions of the past and present; the people who lived and are now living; of our way of life in terms of its values, means of communication, and so on.
- ▶ An appreciation and knowledge of the world around us. There are many facets in this approach of the science of our universe which sharpen the intellectual perspective of all students.
- ▶ A recognition of and appreciation for the spiritual and moral values of life.
- ▶ Some understandings of one's self. An intellectual perspective must mean that certain experiences have helped each person to know himself in such a way that he is able to make a more satisfactory and useful adjustment to life.

This is the second meaning given to the term, intellectual perspective. Such broad understandings are necessary and important to the student to prepare him more effectively in his role as a useful citizen. In a sense, it is in these areas that he gains the real meanings of cultural perspective, enabling him to practice the skills that he has acquired. He sees more clearly his total environment and the role to be played in it.

People will learn from association with one another. Our form of democracy practically assures that children will live and learn together and share experiences based on a variety of backgrounds. Such association provides for the de-

velopment of an intellectual perspective which will mean that students are in a better position for:

- Understanding and appreciating their fellows through peer group contacts.
- Appreciating the differences that exist in other people.
- Taking advantage of and profiting from these associations with a wide variety of individuals; that is to say, no spirit of exploitation is to be encouraged, but the student is better able to work with people.

Thus, the third meaning given to the term, intellectual perspective, stresses not only the student's getting to know persons from many backgrounds, but he is also living and learning the keynote of democracy: the respect for the integrity of the human being. A primary and significant result of this kind of intellectual perspective may be found in the improved ways a person will employ in getting along with others. He has come closer to learning the art of human relations by learning how to live and associate with people of varied backgrounds and abilities.

Perhaps the final test of whether or not an effective intellectual perspective has been acquired is to see how well the persons manage their own lives upon graduation or leaving school or college. The student will use his years of school preparation in such a way that he will acquire:

- A feeling of responsibility and knowledge of what constitutes a good home. He may never take any formalized courses in homemaking, but he possesses insights, attitudes, and certain skills that will lead him into proper, useful homemaking activities.
- A sense of community responsibility. He will assume community leadership where possible; some persons will be better prepared and able to accept positions at a higher level of responsibility and leadership, which means also they possess that willingness to be responsible for higher service.
- An awareness of changing conditions in life, coupled with an ability to meet such conditions.

The fourth meaning that describes the intellectual perspective of the student rounds out his own life in his community. This responsibility for a philosophy rests upon the school or college.

These four meanings serve only to sketch what is meant by an intellectual perspective, which should be a goal for all schools and colleges. Additional meanings could be furnished, but it is believed that these are at least basic and necessary for the total development of the student. Now the next problem is to consider how school or college personnel may best create an environment which may insure the realization of these objectives for a greater number of youth.

The kind of guidance and teaching demonstrated by the classroom teacher plays an important part in helping the student to achieve an intellectual perspective. The role of the teacher toward this objective cannot be defined in simple terms, but there are at least five considerations which should be kept in mind. These may also

be thought of as ways in which the teacher can plan and organize learning experiences that will insure more student realization of the four factors mentioned above as basic to the development of an intellectual perspective.

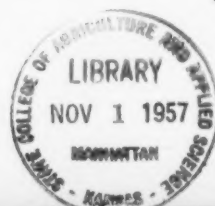
PERSONALIZING INSTRUCTION

Good teacher-student relations must be established. There are at least four ways by which the teacher is able to personalize instruction:

- By knowing the background of students. Because of crowded classes the task of learning the backgrounds of individual students is a definite challenge that teachers must accept and face.
- By knowing the student's desires, ambitions, and objectives. Time must be given for counseling in and out of the classroom, when students can begin to define life's aims; particularly should they feel that personal understandings are being clarified in terms of knowing their abilities, capacities, and total personality.
- By using more widely the information available from all sources and school records. Many teachers may need to have this information made more available to them. Perhaps the files are not complete in that scattered details could be organized into a centralized folder. Instruction becomes personal in a very definite way when the teacher gears the learning process to meet the student's needs based on objective data.
- By demonstrating a personal enthusiasm and interest in the task of teaching. Although the emphasis on friendliness, warmth, and a colorful personality by the teacher needs to be considered, a genuine concern for students and teacher possession of an intellectual perspective are basic to the task. Thus, students will be actively engaged in developing intellectual perspective when their faculty not only possess an insight into leadership skills but are personally showing that they accept and believe in their responsibilities through personal, enthusiastic actions in the classroom.

A second way in which the teacher and administrator may help students to achieve an intellectual perspective is found in the methods and attention given in creating a sound respect for the course work or classroom activities. If students do not find their work challenging, or if they suspect that a teacher has little regard for a subject, it is doubtful that such a course can make a contribution to the development of a perspective. It is imperative that college personnel constantly strive to achieve a good, scholastic reputation; perhaps the first step would be the requirement of high standards in each classroom. Students would quickly recognize that their college demands much from them, and yet each person will not be expected to perform beyond his own abilities. Such knowledge leads students to respect the college and strengthen the development of habits that lead to better citizenship and conscientious effort.

It is obvious that the choice of classroom learning materials rests primarily with the teacher. Students may share in the selection to some degree, but teachers should ask: "Are we satisfied with our choice of materials? Do we give enough time and careful consideration to it? Could discussion groups or some kind of organization improve the situation? What devices or techniques



can we employ to improve the selection process?" These questions point up the importance of providing the best instructional aids available in order to furnish students with a wide variety of materials and to insure a greater realization of the objective of intellectual perspective.

All teachers should raise questions similar to those asked in the preceding paragraph. If dissatisfaction with present teaching techniques is present, then a systematic in-service education program should be inaugurated. Workshops, study groups, and the like may center on problems of evaluation, grading, testing, and many other areas. The use of effective classroom teaching methods will contribute much to the development of the student's perspective, since leadership skills, appreciations, and broad understandings result largely when students have been confronted with such learning experiences organized, for example, in terms of teacher-student sharing in the classroom. That is to say, the joint efforts of the teacher and students in working toward common goals will mean a wider use of student abilities and call forth more personalized ways of solving problems. The students are not merely reading about a perspective but they are practicing the actual skills necessary for its attainment.

There are times when students feel that a particular issue needs to be discussed. If it is pertinent to the problem in hand, teachers may capitalize upon such current interest and foster curiosity and enthusiasm by welcoming class discussion.

One of the singular characteristics of an intellectual perspective is the willingness of the person to explore and investigate worthy problems. To encourage students to follow up a proposed project or topic is a sound way of capturing their interest and of promoting the use of many abilities in finding answers. Even controversial issues serve to challenge the student and cause him to learn new skills and techniques in coming to conclusions. This kind of freedom of student expression in the classroom serves to release the potentialities of students.

CONCLUSION

Teachers and administrators must contribute to the development of this perspective by employing proved methods and approaches. The individual instructor must possess the personal attributes conducive to having intellectual perspective himself and to arousing and stimulating students. Continuous surveys and studies should be made of instructional aims and procedures in order that these will help more students toward an intellectual perspective. Continuous evaluation by faculty and to some degree by students, of how well these aims are being achieved is extremely important.

These thoughts, then, serve to challenge the classroom teacher to do more than teach important facts, and to arrange his classroom situations in such a way that there will be a favorable environment for the development of an intellectual perspective by each class member.

In the Morning

"In the morning when thou risest unwillingly, let this thought be present—I am rising to the work of a human being. Why, then, am I dissatisfied if I am going to do the things for which I exist, and for which I was brought into the world? Or have I been made for this, to lie in the bedclothes and keep myself warm?"

—MARCUS AURELIUS

Paragraphs on Teaching

Among his notable contributions to this journal, Dr. Tead three years ago gave us two installments of "Paragraphs on Teaching" which had a strong appeal, and readers will be happy to have more. These new paragraphs he has called "Further Efforts to Be Sententious." They were "A Year-End Meditation" last May at Briarcliff College. With his permission we are using the earlier title to relate these paragraphs to those printed in May and August 1954.

By **ORDWAY TEAD**

► To the teacher his subject matter usually has value in itself as an interesting end; to the student the matter studied tends to be viewed as a means to other and, to him, more important ends—an extrinsic rather than an intrinsic interest. To reconcile this difference of view should be of constant concern to the teacher, to be helped by showing the student wherein the subject matter bears upon advancing the student's own ends.

► If the scarcity of teachers and the size of classes tend to encourage the teacher to guide and inspire autonomous, self-propulsive, internally-motivated study by students, that can be a genuine gain in educational purpose. This desirable result may well require some alterations in the teacher's classroom methods in order to facilitate getting the student more quickly upon his own feet intellectually and under his own steam.

► To the teacher who is conscientious about each student's progress, there may arise the problem of balancing an anxious solicitude with desirable inner relaxation to be manifested by lightness of touch and an occasional show of humor. There is a necessary ambivalence here—to be consciously attained on a spectrum which ranges from the promptings of conscious and anxious concern to the detachment of seeming "objectivity." The

teacher has to care deeply, but not necessarily to care obviously. The show of caring is often a signal of fatigue, especially when it is seen to irritate or bore, rather than to inspire students.

► In the essential task of occasional conceptualizing, generalizing, or principle formulation, the teacher needs to be aware of the philosophic truth of "polarity" or "complementarity." This should lead to a safeguarding against too sweeping and too absolute utterances because the teacher learns to ask in what sense and to what degree the opposite of his generalization may also embody some aspect of truth. A conscious employment of the principle of polarity can offer effective protection against the temptation to too-great dogmatism. (See *God and Polarity* by W. H. Sheldon, Yale University Press, 1954, Chapter 9.)

► It is sound physiology that we learn to swim in winter and to skate in summer. This is a truth having to do largely with the autonomic system. If we would consciously enhance a summer learning process about our individual winter's teaching, the following may be a few questions we can helpfully put to ourselves:

- a. What questions am I asking myself in my self-evaluation of the year's work?
- b. What do I regard as my successes and my shortcomings?
- c. Am I formulating for use next year a more careful criterion of what constitutes my success as a teacher?
- d. Am I making written notes of my summer thought to salvage for use in fall lecture notes or in other appropriate ways?
- e. Am I striving to hit upon some new angle, "pitch," emphasis, or orientation in my courses to assure that they will have a fresh challenge for me because they will entail that I go through some new problem-solving experiences with my classes?

Fruitful Vineyard

"Let me mind my own personal work; keep myself pure and zealous and believing; laboring to do God's will in this fruitful vineyard of young lives committed to my charge, as my allotted field, until my work is done."

• —THOMAS ARNOLD

TITLE AND TEXT



DEFINITIONS	WORDS
A. Instrument	2 15 35 36
B. American Revolutionary soldier (2 wds)	20 14 59 8 12 23 37 45 42 19
C. Examination	33 4 21 39 30
D. Old World rodent	10 50 5 52 51 41 22 38
E. Stamp of individuality	24 77 134 49 147 34 18 78 9
F. Mulish	56 105 43 25 1 32 143 58 60
G. Masculine proper name	84 3 57 176 66 154
H. Artificer	85 64 44 104 47 88 11 29 101
I. Heroic poems	122 62 17 152 67
J. Surmised	13 116 74 48 68 109 72
K. Kind of test	156 75 81 46 189
L. Reciprocating motion (2 wds)	76 80 87 96 102 61 82 70 97 203
M. Pertaining to a Palestinian brotherhood	112 63
N. Side to side	6 92 190 99 54 26 89 55
O. American novelist (1789-1851)	161 103 79 73 110 115
	145 93 107 111 113 86

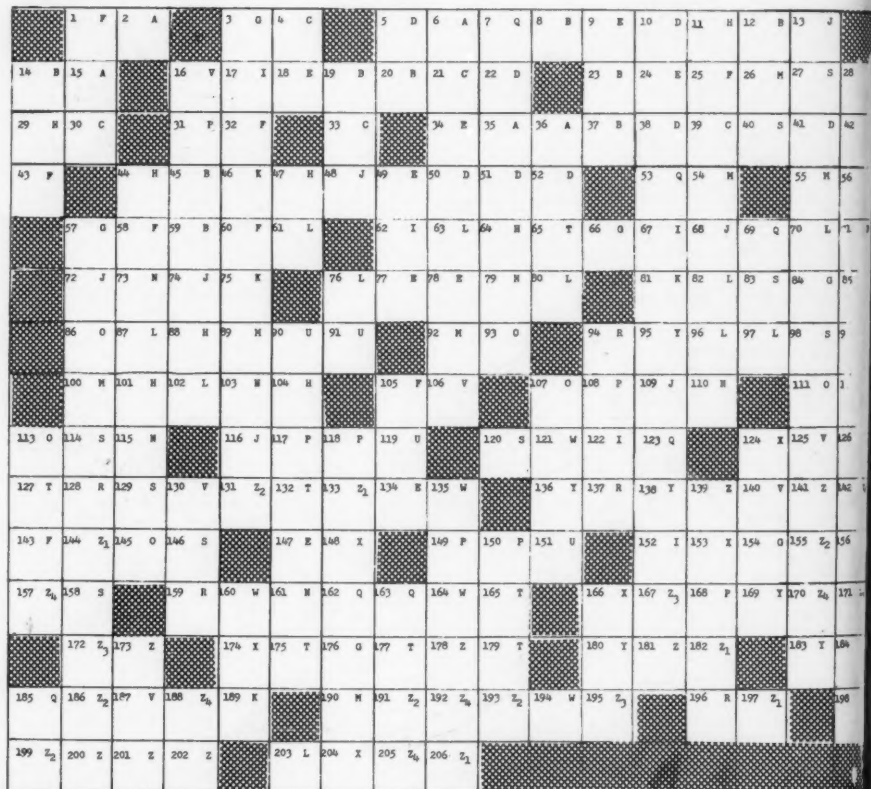
DEFINITIONS	WORDS
P. Ball and socket (2 wds)	160 31 117 168 118 28 108 149
Q. Massachusetts town	53 185 123 7 69 162 163
R. Sting	71 128 159 196 94 137
S. Pate de foie gras (2 wds)	40 120 126 129 146 98 83 27 158
T. Offend	175 65 127 165 132 177 179
U. The Muses	91 90 119 151
V. Lullaby	187 125 140 16 130 106
W. Barn	135 160 184 194 164 121
X. Divisions of geologic time	166 124 153 174 204 148
Y. Landing place	198 95 138 136 169 183 180
Z. Home	141 178 181 139 200 202 173 201
Z1. Middays	144 182 197 133 206
Z2. Unlawful	131 155 199 186 100 193 191
Z3. Tidings	167 195 172 171
Z4. Fiercely	157 192 205 142 188 170

DIRECTIONS

This puzzle is based on a book on college teaching. You first fill in the WORDS, using the DEFINITIONS as clues. Also insert the individual letters as numbered in the WORDS list in the numbered squares of the diagram.

When you have completed the WORDS list correctly, the initial letters spell the name of an author and the title of a book by him. The words in the diagram of squares form a quotation from the book. Note that the words in the diagram read horizontally only, not vertically. Black squares indicate the ends of words. If there is no black square at the end of a line, the word continues into the next line. Sometimes by inference you can complete a partly formed word in the diagram. If so, you can transfer letters into the WORDS list. Each square contains the number of the letter that belongs in it and a letter identifying a word in the WORDS list. Good luck.

Solution will be mailed promptly on request. Solution also will be printed in the next issue.



149

27 168

201

0	J	
7	S	28
1	D	42
5	H	56
0	L	70
4	O	84
1	S	98
11	O	112
25	V	126
A1	Z	140
15	Z ₂	154
0	Z ₄	171
03	Y	184
		198